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ABSTRACT

Forced teaching reassignment combined with curriculum implementation may have detrimental results. This negative effect is due mostly to the reassigned teachers' views of themselves. For instance, it is held that teachers are less motivated by the teaching act because their new work is unfamiliar; their damaged self-esteem makes curricular change difficult; the threat to their autonomy results in concern for themselves rather than their tasks; their "de facto" and "de jure" authority is challenged; their habits, imperviousness, and the nature of the teaching role interfere with curriculum implementation; and, finally, the teachers' past experiences influence their perception of the implementation. Other contributing factors are the reassigned teachers' view of the curriculum, of the people, and of the organization. The teachers tend to deal with their ignorance of the curriculum's content by developing an attitude of noninvolvement with their peers. They view the people with suspicion and respond by isolating themselves. Lastly, they perceive the organization with unfamiliarity. Several strategies suggested to curriculum managers for avoiding these effects include early identification of the necessity to reassign, provision of descriptions of curricular content, and orientation opportunities before the transfer. Five figures and 42 references are attached. (RG)

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POTENTIAL EFFECTS OF TEACHING REASSIGNMENT ON CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

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EA 019 446

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The movement of employees is a major aspect of the personnel management process in school systems. The need increases for this process to be responsive to external demands to systematize and be accountable to changing economic and demographic realities, and, at the same time, to address internal pressures for creative options for job enrichment and career advancement. Miner & Miner suggest that the movement of employees" ensure(s) that the right number and right kinds of people will be at the right places at the right time in the future, capable of doing the things needed so that the organization can achieve its goals" (1973, 10). This presupposes that the organization has a clear vision of what it is and what it is about - a condition not normally associated with the organizational characteristics of schools (eg. Weick, 1976).

While the mobility of the individual is an important facet of career development (Hall, Hall & Hinton, 1978), the need for the organization to control internal movements in a manner consistent with its growth patterns and goals in a rational fashion cannot be minimized. "The control of intra-

organizational mobility has importance, not only because of the consequences associated with the allocation of human resources but also indirectly through its influence on the attitudes and behavior of employees" (Anderson, Milkovich & Tsui, 1981, 529).

The concept of intra-organizational mobility in school systems is compounded by the lack of certainty about what constitutes an organization. In the minds of teachers and most principals, the individual school constitutes the organization, while the perception of central office personnel often views the total district as the organization, and provincial education officials view the organization as broader still. In a similar manner, it is not uncommon to find that development among staff members within schools such that the change of teaching assignment from one department to another may, in fact, be perceived as a major intra-organizational movement by the individual and by the organizational unit, while being viewed as minor by the district (Wanous, Reichers & Malik, 1984).

The empirical investigation of intra-organizational mobility is largely limited to isolated investigations from which

little effort has been made to integrate findings and to conduct cumulative research. Consequently, much of the writing in the area is atheoretical. There is some agreement, however, that while voluntary mobility creates significant impact on both the organization and the individuals involved, non-voluntary mobility creates more potentially serious problems for both the organization and the individual.

Figure 1 presents an analysis of the type of support for propositions which serve as a basis for a typical model of intra-organizational mobility (Anderson, Milkovich, Tsui, 1981).

INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

From the analysis four conclusions are appropriate:

1. The propositions are based on a limited support base.
2. The propositions which focus on the individual have greater support than those which focus on the

organization. Careful examination leads to the conclusion that the support is often tenuous or focused on specific demographic characteristics.

3. The research relative to some of the propositions is time bound.
4. The propositions which have the most support are those which encompass the broadest range of potential attitudes or behaviors.

The analysis is intended not to be particularly critical of the specific model, but to suggest that if this carefully formulated description of intra-organizational mobility is atypical of those available at this time (and it appears to be), there is little to assist those responsible for planning the movement of employees in their efforts to conceptualize the issue.

Much of the research concerned with the movement of employees is centered around the concept of job turnover. Research related to employee turnover has gone through an evolution in its emphasis from looking for relationships between employee satisfaction and turnover rate, to attempting to reduce voluntary turnover, and finally to focusing on the belief that turnover can be explained in terms of individual choice,

and, that the unit of analysis must be the individual (Wright, 1985). This trend toward focusing on the role of the individual in the change is reflective of the concern for the individual evident in the Anderson, Milkovich & Tsui model.

Louis (1980) identified the need to distinguish between voluntary and involuntary turnover in thinking about and studying the construct. It seems reasonable to assume that a similar distinction should be made in addressing intra-organizational mobility. For the most part, no such distinction is made except in terms of the examination of job loss.

Forced intro-organizational mobility may, in some ways at least, be equated with job loss. It certainly can be viewed as a disruption in career development, and, as such, can be expected to engender stress and disruption (Warr, 1984) for the individual moved. Kaufman (1982) and Payne, Warr & Hartley (1984) suggested that in the case of professionals, the psychological stress associated with job loss is very high because of the tendency for professionals to view their work as a large proportion of their ego-identity. Other

consequences of job loss are feelings of disillusionment, betrayal and impotence. (Braginsky & Braginsky, 1975), decreases self-esteem (Fineman, 1983), and a feeling of professional demise (Latack, 1984). Job loss or unwanted transfer may have the effect of causing permanent damage to careers or, as Latack & Dozier (1986) identified, it may result in career growth. The opportunities for career growth from job loss seem to reside within the individual, however, in terms of the ability to see new opportunities for psychological success (Hall, 1976), and the ability to assess the cumulative affect of the move as outweighing the benefits of the old position (Schlossberg, 1981).

From an extensive review of the literature related to job loss, Latack & Dozier identified factors which could, in fact, lead to career growth. They argued that growth is only likely if there is moderate stress in any of the three categories of characteristics: individual, environmental, and those associated with the transition process itself. The categories appear to have been arbitrarily chosen but careful attention was given to the choice of the 18 studies included as data sources for the analysis. The factors identified as their sources of support are summarized in Figure 2. The

authors conclude that "if job loss is to result in career growth, organizational exit cannot be viewed as merely an antiseptic reversal of organizational entry (p. 385). If an involuntary job transfer within an organization is a job loss, it seems reasonable to assume a similar conclusion is appropriate.

INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE

The literature related to intra-organizational mobility, to job turnover and to career growth after job loss all point to the consideration of the individual as an important factor in the management of the process. This conclusion is not surprising, but the impacts of decisions to terminate or to transfer an employee are frequently viewed solely from the perspective of the organization. Little attention has been paid to the interactive effect of the employee and the new organizational content or to work group processes in these circumstances.

Wright (1986) identified 96 factors from the empirical research related to socialization which influence the individual's ability to become a functioning employee in a new working context. (Figure 3) The support for each of

these factors was strong but it was difficult to justify a single categorization of the factors. Using an interpretative-theoretical mode of model develpment, she

INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE

concluded that the process can best be described in terms of twelve categories: view of self, view of the organization, view of the job, initiation to the organization/superior/group; initiation to the task, task/role definition, reaction to work group/superior, performance appraisal, role redefinition, task mastery and internal work motivation, and outcomes (general satisfaction and job involvement or mutual influence or severance). Each of these twelve categories of factors is susceptible to influences from outside the organization - a type of environmental impact. A rudimentary model suggesting relationship among the categories is presented in Figure 4.

INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE

To this point, it has been argued that intra-organizational 1 mobility is a concept with which administrators have to deal. Intra-organizational mobility may have deleterious

effects or may, in fact, lead to career development for the individual. Further, such movement, which may be construed as job turnover, may be voluntary or involuntary. Whatever the case may be, the individual in a new work setting is faced with and subject to the process of organizational socialization. Organizational socialization is a complex phenomenon influenced by a large number of factors. Examination of these factors leads to the natural conclusion that socialization is a process unique to the individual and unique to the organization but influenced by the environment.

Teachers who have been reassigned are, in essence, newcomers to the organizational setting. Those persons whose reassignment was sought approach their new job with a positive attitude and with a greater probability of success than those who have been reassigned against their will. For both, however, the newcomer experience is one characterized by change, contrast and surprise (Louis, 1980). The change is in terms of the objective differences between the new organization and the old one, contrast involves the emergence of particular features of the new setting which differ from the old, and surprise is the difference between the

expectations held for the new job and the actual experience. The newcomer only makes sense of the organization over time by detecting and interpreting surprises.

Much of the sense making in organizations in the new organizational context is attributed to the interactions among workers in the new context. The person who has chosen to be reassigned carries a positive attitude which often contributes to a relatively easy transition in becoming a social part of the work group. Teachers who are reassigned involuntarily are not only facing the new school as any worker faces a new job, but are often assigned to an unfamiliar grade level and/or courses for which they are ill prepared. In addition they may enter an environment which is hostile to any intruder (Steers & Mowday, 1981) because a faculty member with less experience has been "bumped" to make room for the transferee. The practice of some districts which results in the poorer teachers' in a school somehow being those transferred may also create the expectation of the school staff that the reassigned teacher is somewhat inferior. Schools are notorious in their assignment of the newcomer to the least preferred job, a process referred to by Glickman (1975) as "inverse beginner responsibilities".

Hollingworth (1981) described the situation effectively:

> Emotions run high in cases of involuntary reassignment. These teachers often feel betrayed. Their extra duties, personal commitments to programs, and feelings for students and other staff members seem to have been ignored. Anger at the system may be natural, but it destroys the qualities most essential for effective teaching: involvement and caring (138).

Using Fuller's (1969) well known conceptualization of the developmental stages of teacher concerns, it is reasonable to conclude that teachers reassigned regress in their development toward the "self" stage, at least for a period of time. It also appears that those reassigned involuntarily have the potential for the total regression to be greater.

While it is important that strategies to reduce the regression be identified, little concrete evidence exists to suggest their relative merit. Strategies including the

assigning of a peer to act as a guide (Schein, 1977), placing the employee in a highly visible social situation (Berlew & Hall,1966), providing realistic job previews (Wanous, 1980), protecting employees from factors external to the organization, and careful diagnosing of and interventing in interpersonal problems which develop within the organizational setting (Feldman, 1983) are advocated in helping employees develop more positive self-images and more comfortable work settings. They do not, however, offer much assurance that the students in classrooms will be taught.
In addition, little attention has been addressed to the appropriately potential impact of the regression resulting from reassignment on the management of curriculum in general. The remainder of this paper will address this issue speculatively.

In considering the potential influence of the reassignment of teachers on curriculum implementation, it is useful to identify the factors known to influence the implementation process. Newton & Wright (in press) summarized the factors as belonging to six major categories: people involved directly or indirectly, the innovation, strategies used to try to implement, the nature of the organization into which

the innovation is being introduced, endogenous intervening variables, and exogenous intervening variables. (Figure 5).

INSERT FIGURE 5 HERE

The factors identified by Newton & Wright are based largely on the assumption that change is a rational process. The rationality of change and of organizational processes in general is subject to question. Van Meter & Scollay (1985) concluded that:

> our understanding of organizations has evolved to incorporate an interpretation based on the idea of limited rationality, wherein organizations and human behavior in organizational settings are seen at times to be characterized and driven as much by ritual, myth and illusion as by the precepts of rationality (15).

In essence, the specific reactions between the individual and the organizational context is viewed as more important then it may previously have been seen. The total organizational culture may also play a greater part in organizational

processes than most researchers acknowledge researchers acknowledge.

Implementation, regardless of its contextual nature, is a major management concern in most educational contexts (eg. Fullan, 1982). Teachers interacting with children in the classroom context are expected to do so through the medium of the prescribed curricular material.

Connell (1985) argued that "teaching is a labour process without an objective" (70) and further that "the lack of an objective allows a limitless intensification of teachers' work" (74). While the need for reciprocity between the needs of teachers and the needs of their clientele in the workplace is obvious, it is only the clear understanding of the curriculum boundaries that makes the job or mission manageable.

Webb (in Ball & Goodson, 1985) identified teachers in general as being in a state of status panic and as "moving up the down escalator." While arguing that the teaching profession is not providing individuals with the financial and psychological support they need, he maintained that teachers in general are showing more and more signs of anxiety, and

that the traditional major source of teacher satisfaction, the teaching act itself, is losing its motivation of the teaching task itself as a major means of fostering the change in the desired direction. The reassigned teacher whose work world has been totally disrupted will naturally tend to be less motivated by the nature of the work itself because the nature of the work is largely unknown.

Administrative and collegial support are also considered critical to the successful implementation of a planned curriculum change. Frequently the role of the school principal and the influential staff member are described as the major key in the change process. If recognition from significant others is necessary for the establishment and maintenance of self-esteem as psychologists have long contended, the reassigned teacher's self-esteem is in jeopardy by the general lack of administrative and collegial support available to them in a potentially hostile situation. The atomized nature of the school itself creates segmented efforts at change. Even the most carefully targeted change, strategies may lead to isolation rather than unity.

Teachers develop an insularity. They tend to become self-

contained and self-sufficient. This insularity, unfortunately, is often a means of coping with deficiencies in pedagogical and curricular knowledge. Instead of fostering professional growth, the condition really serves to promote a general attitude of professional non-involvement with peers. It gives administrators the false sense that teachers are really only organizational units which are functionally interchangeable. Webb argued that teachers build a form of alienation that social psychologists call "self-estrangement" (85). This condition usually leads to depersonalized detachment rather than involvement in the job tasks.

Reisborough (in Ball & Goodman, 1985) described a school as a "leather processing organization" (203). As such, schools should be institutions in which teachers develop a sense of self-efficacy and productive autonomy. Instead, in many situations, "children and teachers are trapped, crushed and thingified" (207). Autonomy and self-realization are personal goods. When either is disrupted the teacher becomes more susceptible to self-concerns as opposed to task-concerns or impact-concerns. Both curriculum implementation and reassignment produce threats to autonomy, to self-efficacy

and to self-realization. Expectancy theorists would suggest that the combination of an effort to implement as new curriculum and the effort to adjust to a new position have a summative, multiplicative negative effect on satisfaction.

Curriculum implementation efforts challenge both "de jure" and the "de facto" authority of teachers. While the assignment of a teaching position brings with it a "de jure" authority, the removal from the previous position lessens the teachers' sense of the worth of the authority and may, in fact, create doubt about the ability to fulfill the expectations housed in the role of teachers.

Facing a new curriculum creates a situation in which all teachers find their "de facto" authority attached. Common (1983) argued that the reasons for teacher authority lie in the realm of instructional, pedagogical, epistemological, and moral justification. New curricula demand actual instructional practices, an expanded view of the instruction, significantly different knowledge of content, an awareness of the epistemological status of the espoused curriculum content, and an awareness of the moral principal underlying the proposed content. Typical strategies used by those in

charge of curriculum implementation depend heavily on the joint acquisition of the defacto authority. Norms of collegiality and experimentation become moral demands with intellectual substance.

Buchmann (1986) argued that the role obligations of teachers as members of a community forge bonds that ensure compliance but generate effort and involvement (529). The "tendencies in teacher preparation and staff development to stress individualism, self-realization, and the personal - even idiosyncratic element in teaching are therefore problematic" (530). Imperviousness and habit interfere with learning and with getting help from others. The nature of the teaching role, itself, acts as a barrier to implementation. Teachers have not been expected to or taught to justify jointly teaching acts. Being authentically one's self is not enough. Authencity and legitimacy are related to productivity to the extent that reasoned choice is made in the teaching act.

The sociologists who write about curriculum implementation often refer to "prehistory" as a factor contributing to the success or lack thereof of implementation efforts. This prehistory usually refers to the collective experience of the

group, its success in previous change efforts give it an expectation of success or failure in the current project. In a similar manner, the individual brings a cognitive schema- a framework of past ideas and experiences - that influences the interpretation of current events (Gitlin et al., 1985) to the change effort. The schema is everchanging in light of experience and serves as a "cognitive map for proactively assimilating information" (51). It is this schema which will determine upon what the reassigned teacher will choose to focus in the new working situation and upon what factors in the curriculum implementation effort the most effort and attention will be expended.

In a sense, the injection of an individual in the midst of an implementation effort creates a crisis both for the individual and for the curriculum manager. "In these moments of crisis the formal principles of control in the organization are laid bare, and the powerlessness of the subordinate stands out" (Ball, 1987, 189). Mutual adjustment between the organization and the individual is necessary. This mutual adjustment is problematic in terms of the needs of the individual and the demands of the formal organization; the tendency to focus on superficial and short

term concerns and the likelihood of the subordinate's to experience rivalry, hostility and a limited view of the change process.

In summary, the reassignment of teachers to contexts in which a curriculum implementation effort is being made will likely create problems. The majority of the problems relate to the teacher in particular. These include a lowered sense of self-efficacy, decreased self-esteem, decreased satisfaction from the teaching act, an attack on the "de jure" and "de facto" authority of the teacher, and overreliance on autonomy, a decreased probability of self-realization in the classroom, a lack of authenticity, and the cognitive schema. Some of the problems relate to the curriculum content itself - the understanding of the epistemological status of the content, the role orientation expected of the teacher, the moral underpinnings of the content, and a view of the whole curriculum. Other problems relate more directly to the management process - the identification of sources of assistance, the sense the prehistory of the new group, the authentication or justification of the altered teacher role-orientation, and the establishment of a clear view of what is needed in the mutual adaptation process between teachers and

the new organizational setting.

Referring back to the model of socialization suggested by Figure 4 and the elements and factors related to the management of curriculum implementation process identified in Figure 5, it is evident that the reassignment of teachers is likely to deter the curriculum implementation process greatly.

The teachers' view of self seems to create the most interference with the elements of implementation. The curriculum is viewed in a piecemeal fashion, both in terms of its anatomical and attributional elements. It is viewed from a perspective of limited authority, limited epistemological justification, and limited content awareness. The people involved in the implementation are viewed through a screen of suspicion. There is a decreasing sense of collegiality, a decreasing tendency to seek help, natural confusion relative to the lines of formal and informal authority, and an increasing tendency for isolationism. The view of the self also influences the manner in which the organization is perceived. There is a sense of unfamiliarity with the role expectations, limited access to resources (both people and

physical resources), and incomplete view of the change process, an unshared prehistory, and a limited ability to view the goals of curriculum change holistically.

Since implementation strategies have been in place, the reassigned individual is injected in the midst of a carefully developed and sequenced organizational process. The view of the self is inevitably one of inferiority in terms of pedagogy, and of an awareness of what the process is all about. The constant threat of being perceived by others as intellectually inferior, incompetent, and of little worth is real and exaggerated.

The view of self in terms of exogenous and endogenous intervening variables is most influenced by the individuals cognitive schema and training. The expectation that teaching is an autonomous role and that teachers should be independent leads to a sense of isolation and overload. The sense of overload, in turn, fosters decreased effort, decreased output, decreased role clarity, and create a disproportionate willingness to change.

This examination of the results of the reassignment of

teachers and their potential influence or curriculum implementation elements leads naturally to the conclusion that the curriculum manager must be cognizant of the effects of the reassignment on the teachers' view of self. Specific strategies can be targeted toward "catching the reassigned up to" the stage of development of their coworkers, but effectiveness of the strategies will be determined largely by their ability to contribute to the positive self-image of the teacher.

The strategies one could prescribe to decrease the deleterious effects of teacher reassignment on the curriculum implementation process are legion. They are also basic strategies in the management of conflict and in the development of worker self-esteem. A few are listed below:

1. Early identification of the need to reassign and the specific reassignment.
2. Provision of "on site" work opportunities before the actual reassignment.
3. Inclusion of the teacher to be reassigned in workshop and training sessions relative to the curriculum implementation efforts.
4. Provision of opportunities for individualized instruction of teachers in the pedagogical skills needed in the curriculum.
5. Development of clear and concise descriptions of the curriculum, its content, and its goals.

6. Assignment of the teacher to training groups with membership from several schools not just the one to which the reassignment is made.

7. Frequent specific feedback on the performance of the teacher in clearly identified skill and content areas.

PROPOSITION	SUPPORT
1. The more opportunities or vacancies there are within an organization, the greater the rate of mobility.	1 opinion article, 2 empirical investigations (publication dates range from 1966-1972)
2. The characteristics of the organization will have a direct influence on the mobility patterns within the organization.	1 opinion article, 6 empirical investigations (publication dates range from 1956-1977)
3. The characteristics of the environment, organization, and workforce will have an indirect effect on mobility through their primary influence on the opportunities or vacancies in the organization.	2 opinion articles, 5 empirical investigations (publication dates range from 1961-1973)
4. The criteria established by the organization to regulate movement from job to job within the system will mediate the relationship between opportunities and mobility rates and patterns.	1 opinion article, 2 empirical investigations (publication dates range from 1968-1980)
5. The characteristics of the environment, organization and workforce, as well as the number of opportunities will indirectly affect mobility through their primary influence on the nature, level of standards, and universality of the mobility criteria chosen to regulate movement within the organization.	5 opinion articles, 4 empirical investigations (publication dates range from 1958-1979)

Figure 1: Type of support for the propositions underlying the Anderson, Milkovich & Tsui (1981) Model of Intra-organizational Mobility

6.	The actual mobility experience by an individual will depend largely on the match between his or her characteristics and the organizational criteria.	2 opinion articles, 16 empirical investigations (publication dates range from 1951-1973)
7.	An individual's expectations and desires for future mobility, and satisfaction with mobility to date, will depend on the actual mobility experiences of the individual and the match between the individual's characteristics and organizational mobility criteria.	1 opinion article, 5 empirical, investigation (publication dates range from 1970-1973)
8.	The more an individual experiences mobility and the more expectations for mobility have been fulfilled, the greater the individual's satisfaction, motivation, commitment, and identification with the organization.	3 empirical investigations (publication dates range from 1966-1973)
9.	An individual's work behavior and involvement in the organization (absenteeism, turnover) will depend in part on the match between actual, and expected mobility, and other job-related attitude	4 empirical investigations (publication dates range from 91964-1980)

Figure 1 continued

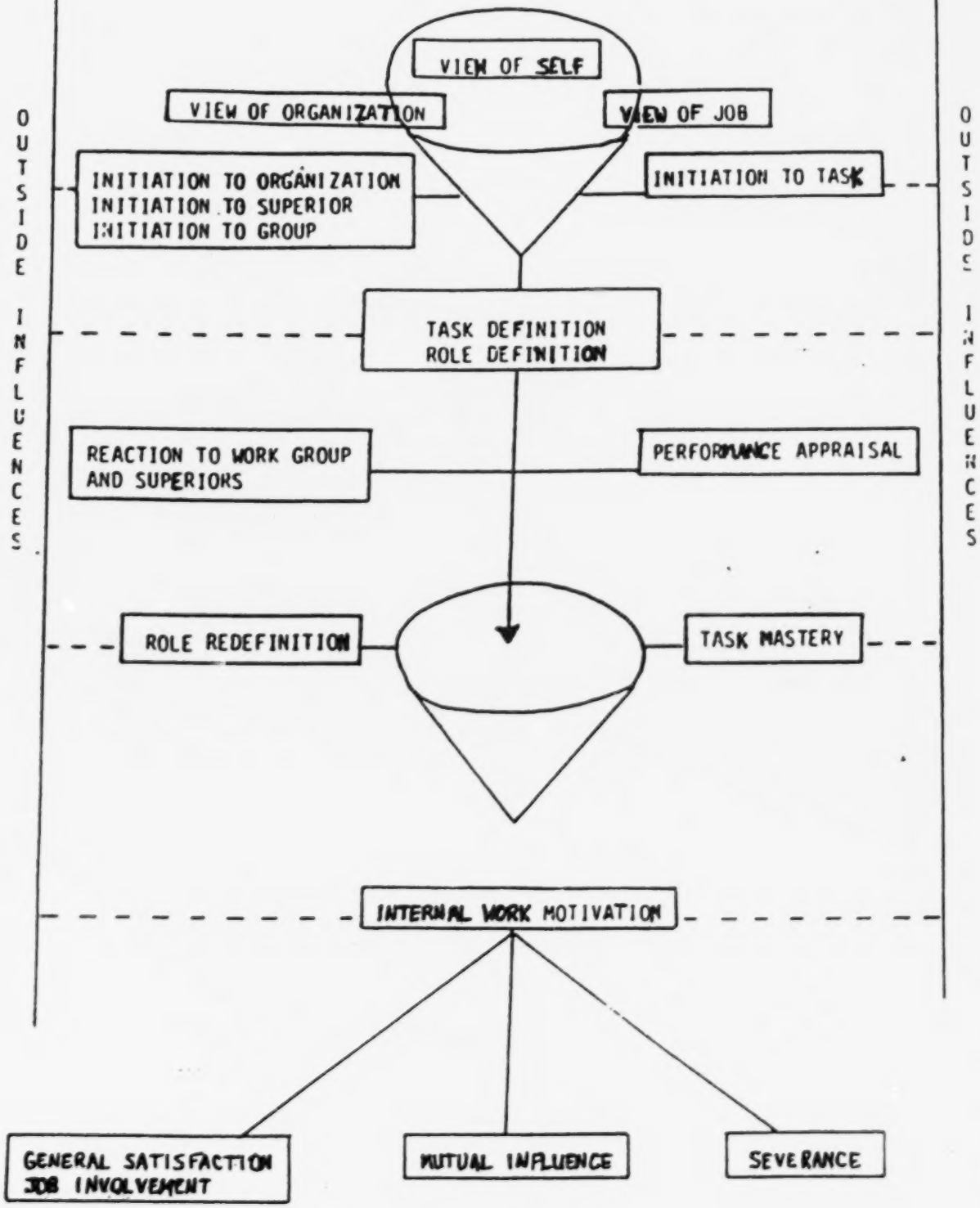
Category	Characteristics	Support
Individual	level of job involvement	Fineman, 1983
	perception of previous	Hartley, 1980; Little, 1976
	career stage	Hall, 1976; Latack, 1984 Schlossberg & Liebowitz, 1980
	activity level	Latack, 1984
Environmental	financial resources	Thomas, McCabe & Barry, 1980
	social support:	
	family	Near, Rice & Hunt, 1980
	coworkers	Schlossberg & Liebowitz, 1980
	organizational placement programs	Schlossbery & Liebowitz, 1980
Transition process	nature of warning:	
	advance	Fineman, 1983
	explanations and reasons	Swinburne, 1981
	source of information	Latack, 1984
	professional approach	Stybel, 1981

Figure 2: Factors associated with the potential for career growth after job loss.

Ability to deal with people
Advancement opportunities
Age
Aggression
Altruism
Attachment to old position
Autonomy
Availability to jobs
Career stage
Clarity/predictability
Cognitive processes
Community ties
Congruence of evaluation
Congruence of needs/values
Contrast
Coping skills
Critical learning time
Culture/climate/ethos
Delay of gratification
Early success
Ecological characteristics
Education
Expectations for job
Expectations of others
Experience/biography
Flexibility
Formal context
Group cohesiveness
Hours of work
Informal context
Initial reaction to/of group
Interaction with clients
Inter-group role conflict
Interpretative schemes
Involvement opportunities
Job commitment/involvement
Job description
Job tension
Knowledge of role
Lateral role influence
Leader acceptance
Leader-member interaction
Management system
Material constraints
Mentor
Motivating factors
Non-work values/interests
Normative pressure
Occupational dimensions
Organizational conflict
Organizational control
Organizational level
Organizational members
Parental expectations
Peer evaluation
Performance standards
Personality
Political sensitivity
Power of socialization
Pre-employment information
Predecessor´ stay
Professional frustration
Priorities
Psychological orientation
Pupil load
Race
Reality shock
Reciprocal learning
Recruiting practices
Role of supervisor
Role pressure
Salary/benefits
Satisfaction
School demography
School integration
School size
Self esteem/efficacy
Sex
Socialization agents
Socialization model
Supervision quantity
Supervisor competence
Supervisor consideration
Supervisor´s evaluation
Task ability level
Tenure
Time in previous position
Timing of feedback
Type of feedback
Unit exchange
Upward mobility
View of new organization
Withitness
Work activities
Work motivator

Figure 3: Factors influencing socialization.

Figure 4: A Model of Socialization



Category		Factors
I.	People	Users - principals, teachers, students Administrators - supervisors, superintendents, professional and support staff, consultants Implementation Staff - change agents, monitors, trainers, curriculum managers Exogenous - parent, public school board
II.	Innovation	Anatomical Attributes - philosophy, components Ascribed Attributes - availability, practicality, clarity, relative advantages compatibility, trialability, observability, communicability, cost
III.	Strategies	Workshops, released time, timing, feedback mechanisms, team-building, pilot projects, goal setting, involvement of appropriate persons, formative and summative evaluation
IV:	Organization	Structure, space, climate, formal and informal organization, resources, prehistory, reward system, roles, behavior goals, decision-making
V:	Intervening Variable -endogenous	Communication barriers, limited resources, peer pressure, interactions, compliance, available time, overload , perceived importance of change, role clarity, ability and predisposition of user to change
VI:	Intervening Variables - exogenous	Community - demands, socio-economic constraints politics, macro-level influences, control of board of education, culture, special interest groups, special education needs School Setting - physical features, experience with change, number of teachers not involved, inter-school cooperation, teacher beliefs, workshops for school-community understanding, tendency toward inertia, presence of individual teachers opposing the curriculum Other - teacher training institutions, field centers, external change agents, academic-school interaction, available research, teacher organizations, ministries of education, media, funding foundations, federal government policy, local government policy, technological factors, professional organizations.

Figure 5: Factors Affecting Implementation

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